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Finding a Single Molecule in a Haystack: Optical Detection and Spectroscopy of Single Absorbers in Solids

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# FINDING A SINGLE MOLECULE IN A HAYSTACK: OPTICAL DETECTION AND SPECTROSCOPY OF SINGLE ABSORBERS IN SOLIDS

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**ABSTRACT:** Single-absorber optical spectroscopy in solids is described for the case of finding a single pentacene molecule in a haystack composed of 10<sup>13</sup> background *p*-terphenyl host molecules and 10<sup>6</sup> additional pentacene molecules. This may be accomplished by a combination of laser FM spectroscopy and either Stark or ultrasonic double-modulation, using the additional fact that in an inhomogeneously broadened line, the laser wavelength may be chosen such that only one impurity molecule is in resonance.

In the past few years, much progress has been made in the optical detection of single absorbers confined by various means. For example, single ions confined in electromagnetic traps in vacuum have yielded to the techniques of the optical spectroscopist, thus allowing direct measurement of quantum jumps. Doppler sidebands, and other fundamental phenomena such as ion crystallization <sup>1,2</sup>. In liquid media, optical trapping and manipulation of single viruses and single live motile bacteria has been achieved with radiation pressure techniques<sup>3</sup>. By using laser-induced fluorescence and a novel hydrodynamically-focused flow to confine the molecules and reduce the scattering volume, single molecules of the protein B-phycoerythrin with the equivalent of 25 rhodamine 6G chromophores have also been detected<sup>4</sup>.

The ability to detect a single absorbing molecular (or ionic) impurity in a solid (called single-molecule detection, or SMD) would provide a novel probe of the local structure and dynamics of crystalline and amorphous solids on a truly local, site-selective scale. However, compared to the other single-absorber experiments mentioned above, SMD provides a different set of experimental challenges. The problem can be likened to finding a needle in a haystack, because unlike the ion-trap experiments for example, the molecule of interest is held in a solid containing a large number (  $\simeq 10^{12} - 10^{18}$ ) of "non-absorbing" host molecules within the laser focal volume. If laser-induced fluorescence excitation were used and the host molecules had appreciable Raman (or Rayleigh) scattering crosssections, the signal from the one above ing molecule could be swamped by the scattering signal from the host. Unlike the hydromamic focusing experiments, it is not always possible to reduce the host scattering volume, and furthermore, it would be intriguing to measure the absorption spectrum of a single absorber, rather than to detect its presence in a digital fashion at a fixed laser wavelength. Another experimental challenge in SMD derives from the difficulty of removing interfering impurities at very small concentrations of the molecule of interest. It would be useful to have a detection technique that can operate at relatively large impurity concentrations (10 7 mole/mole) and still be able to

see one absorbing molecule in the presence of  $\simeq 10^6$  or more identical absorbing molecules.

In this article, recent experiments 5, 6 to achieve optical detection and spectroscopy of single absorbing impurities in a solid will be described, using the model system composed of pentacene substitutional impurities in p-terphenyl crystals at 1.5K (see Figure 1). The pentacene molecules can substitute for any one of the four p-terphenyl molecules in the low-temperature unit cell $^{7}$ , giving rise to four  $S_1 \leftarrow S_0$  0-0 optical absorption origins near 593 nm, named  $O_1$ ,  $O_2$ ,  $O_3$ , and  $O_4$ , where we focus here on the origins  $O_1$  and  $O_2$ . In our  $\simeq 100 \ \mu m$  thick samples at impurity concentrations of 10  $^7$  mole/mole, therefore, the background "haystack" is composed of 1013 host molecules plus 106 additional pentacene molecules other than the one of interest. Our method of selection of a single resonant impurity for optical probing relies upon the well-known phenomenon of inhomogeneous broadening that occurs for all zero-phonon transitions at low temperatures. As is illustrated schematically in Figure 2, the low-temperature inhomogeneous profile (for a particular site for the guest) is composed of many narrow homogeneous (usually Lorentzian) absorption lines with a distribution of center frequencies caused by dislocations, point defects, or random internal electric and strain fields and field gradients in the host material. Clearly, then, one absorber may be selected for spectroscopy by proceeding out into the wings of the inhomogeneous line as shown on the right side of the figure. 8

Due to the randomness associated with the imperfections in the host material, inhomogeneous absorption lines (at least near the center of the inhomogeneous line) are often approximated by smooth, Gaussian profiles<sup>9</sup>. However, since the inhomogeneous line on a microscopic scale is simply a superposition of <u>discrete</u> homogeneous lines with widths as much as 1000 times narrower than the overall inhomogeneous profile, the true shape of the inhomogeneous line cannot be a smooth function in reality. In fact,

unavoidable number fluctuations in the density of absorbers per unit wavelength interval should give rise to a "spectral noise" on the overall Gaussian background that scales as the square root of the mean number of centers in resonance. To be precise, defining the average number of centers in the probed volume within one homogeneous width of the laser wavelength as  $\overline{N}_H$ , there should be a statistical fine structure (SFS) present on the absorption profile scaling in absolute magnitude as  $\sqrt{\overline{N}_H}$ . Since SFS arises from the absorption of many overlapping impurity absorptions, the absolute magnitude of the SFS is clearly larger than a single-molecule absorption signal (where  $\overline{N}_H{\approx}1$ ). Therefore, observations of SFS would be expected to precede true single-molecule detection.

Recent observations of SF3 in the pentacene in *p*-terphenyl system provided a crucial first step toward single-molecule detection and spectroscopy <sup>10</sup>. This was achieved using the high-resolution and high-sensitivity technique of laser frequency-modulation spectroscopy (FMS) <sup>11</sup> to probe the optical absorption in a zero-background manner sensitive only to narrow spectral features. This detection method will be described in more detail below. Since its source is a random process, the SFS spectral structure changes for different probe volumes, and an "SFS landscape" of the inhomogeneous line can be generated by acquiring SFS spectra as a function of laser spot position, as in Figure 3. The bumps and valleys in this figure may be regarded as the "fuzz" on the top of the "haystack" represented by the pentacene inhomogeneous line resulting from the statistics of independent, additive random variables.

A further bit of physical information may be derived directly from SFS spectra: the homogeneous width of the underlying Lorentzian profiles may be determined simply by computing the autocorrelation of the measured spectra <sup>10</sup>. This is due in an approximate sense to the ability of autocorrelation analysis to remove the information about the random quantity (the center frequencies of the individual absorbers) in order to reveal what is similar for all absorbers, i.e., the shape of the homogeneous profile. The result of a

straightforward analysis <sup>10</sup> is that the expectation value of the autocorrelation of the SFS signal has a spectral width at the origin equal to twice the homogeneous width. Using this scheme to analyze SFS spectra similar to those in Figure 3, one obtains the homogeneous width (full-width at half-maximum)  $y = 7.9 \pm 0.8$  MHz for the O<sub>1</sub> site of pentacene in *p*-terphenyl at 1.4 K, which compares favorably with the previously reported value <sup>12</sup> of  $7.8 \pm 0.6$  MHz obtained using coherent transient techniques.

Subsequent to the first observations of SFS, other researchers around the world moved closer to single-abcorber detection in solids by demonstrating that SF3 can be observed at lower and lower impurity concentrations. The method of Lange et al. <sup>13</sup> relied upon fluorescence excitation of  $Sm^{2+}$  ions in  $CaF_2$  at 77K with a fixed frequency laser in tightly focused spots. These researchers saw Poisson fluctuations in the detected fluorescence as a function of the position of the focal spot and concluded that they had reached the level  $\overline{N}_H = 5$ . Another novel approach developed by the Yen group at the University of Georgia <sup>14</sup> involved laser fluorescence excitation in a glass fiber doped with Nd<sup>3+</sup> ions. Here the fiber geometry effectively maintains a small focus and a small probing volume in order to reduce background signals from the host, and the measured SFS allowed these researchers to conclude that they had reached  $\overline{N}_H$  values on the order of a few tens of ions. In both of these cases, special detection geometries were necessary to avoid the background fluorescence signals from the host.

Our approach to SMD avoids the problem of fluorescence backgrounds by using a powerful absorption technique, laser FM spectroscopy (FMS)  $^{11}$ . The basic operation of FMS is illustrated in the upper part of Figure 4. A tunable single-frequency laser beam at  $\omega_c$  is passed through an electro-optic phase modulator EO to produce light that is frequency-modulated at a rf frequency  $\omega_m$  in the MHz range. This FM light beam has the spectrum shown in the upper center of the figure: a carrier at the original frequency, plus two sidebands displaced by  $\pm \omega_m$  from the carrier. If this FM light beam were sent directly

to a high-speed photodiode detector (which as usual measures the envelope of the power absorbed), no photocurrent at  $\omega_m$  would be detected. This is simply a statement of the fact that an FM light beam has no amplitude modulation (AM). In the frequency domain, this lack of AM can be understood by noting that the two sidebands are out-of-phase with respect to the carrier; therefore, the beat signals caused by each sideband interfering with the carrier cancel.

Now when a spectral feature is present that disturbs the balance between the two sidebands, a rf photocurrent appears that is proportional to the difference in optical absorption at the upper and lower sidebands. This photocurrent at  $\omega_{m}$  may be detected (phase-sensitively) by a rf lock-in composed of a mixer M driven with a local oscillator derived from the original rf source. Thus the (low frequency, or baseband) signal at the I port of the mixer is the standard simple FMS signal, which has the following properties 15: (1) it appears on a background that is derived from the laser noise at  $\omega_m$ , which may be at the quantum limit if no excess noise is introduced by the detector, (2) the size of the signal is largest when the spectral feature is narrower in width than  $\omega_{\rm m}$ , and (3) for wide spectral features the FMS signal approaches zero in a manner proportional to the derivative of the spectral feature. Point (1) is responsible for the quantum-limited performance of FM spectroscopy that has been achieved with simple (non-avalanche) photodiodes <sup>16</sup>. Points (2) and (3) are particularly important for SMD, because any undesired optical absorption from other impurities or from the p-terphenyl host that is broad compared to  $\omega_{\mathrm{m}}$  is not detected with appreciable amplitude. With our values of  $\omega_{\rm m}/2\pi = v_{\rm m} = 50-90\,{\rm MHz}$ , only rigid molecules like pentacene with homogeneous widths less than  $\simeq$  100 MHz will be detected.

There is one background signal from FMS that must be avoided. Since the method directly senses the conversion of FM into AM, any residual AM (also called RAM) from imperfections in the modulator can give rise to a spurious background signal. To

overcome this, we utilized a secondary modulation of the spectral feature itself. Figure 4 shows the case where the secondary modulation is produced by an electric field oscillating at a low frequency in the kilohertz range. The electric field shifts the absorption profile twice each cycle via the quadratic Stark effect. Then the output of the mixer processed by a final lock-in amplifier LIA at 2f yields a detected signal that is free from RAM background limitations. In addition to this FM/Stark technique, we also separately utilized a different secondary modulation to achieve SMD, ultrasonic (stress) modulation, which operates in a similar fashion by shifting the homogeneous line in a periodic fashion. It is clear that other local perturbations of the impurity molecule might also be used for double-modulation detection.

The size of the expected absorption signal from a single molecule is straightforward to estimate<sup>5</sup>. The change in absorbance,  $(\Delta\alpha)L$ , is given by the probability of absorption of a photon in the incident beam by the molecule,  $\sigma/A$ , where  $\sigma$  is the peak absorption cross section and A is the area of the laser beam. Clearly, then, one would prefer molecules with strong absorptions and tightly focused laser spots. In our experiment, we used a focal spot  $\simeq 3~\mu m$  in diameter, and the peak (low-temperature) absorption cross section for pentacene is  $9.3 \times 10^{-12} \, \text{cm}^2$ , yielding an absorbance change of  $\simeq 10^{-4}$ . This is not an extremely small signal until one realizes that detection must be performed with a light intensity that does not produce extreme power broadening. To meet this constraint in a tightly focused spot, we had to perform measurements with only 0.1  $\mu$ W of light at the detector, and even at this level, we chose to accept some amount of power broadening. Such a low light level requires an avalanche photodiode to avoid detector Johnson noise; however, avalanche photodiodes have an excess multiplicative noise which requires operation somewhat above the quantum limit.

In spite of these limitations, the FM/Stark and FM/US methods can be used to detect the optical absorption of a single molecule of pentacene in a solid crystal of p-terphenyl.

Figure 5 shows examples of the spectra for the FM/Stark case. The first three traces show simulations of the expected single-molecule lineshape for either Stark or ultrasonic double modulation. Trace 5(a) shows a Lorentzian absorption profile of width y, and trace 5(b) shows the expected simple FM signal 15: two copies of the absorption line with opposite sign, spaced by  $2v_{\rm m}=150\,{\rm MHz}$  (in the limit  $y<< v_{\rm m}$ ). With secondary modulation that causes frequency shifts less than the linewidth, the resulting double-modulation lineshape is the derivative of the simple FM lineshape (trace 5(c)). Thus the signature of a single molecule is a "W"-shaped feature with a large negative slope and a large positive slope separated by  $2v_{\rm m}$ .

In a typical experiment, the laser frequency was set near the center of the inhomogeneous line, and the strong SFS signal present there was used to optimize the optical and electronic configuration. Then as the laser wavelength was moved out into the wings of the line, the SFS amplitude dropped uniformly. Eventually spectra that appear to be superpositions of 2-5 single-molecule spectra like trace 5(c) were observed. Finally, sufficiently far out into the wings of the line, single-molecule spectra could be recorded. Trace 5(d) shows a set of eight FM/Stark double modulation spectra of a strong in-focus molecule far out in the long-wavelength edge of O1, along with several unavoidable weak repeatable features from out-of-focus molecules at the left and right edges of the laser scan range. These out-of-focus features were caused by molecules not located at the laser waist position (see Fig. 2) and may be suppressed in future experiments with thinner samples. The fiducial bar marks a spectral range equal to  $2v_{\rm m}$ . Trace 5(e) shows the average of the eight scans in 5(d), along with a fit to the central feature generated by a simple model for the double-modulation process. The fit to the essential features of the SMD lineshape is reasonable, and the homogeneous width required by the fitting process is somewhat larger than the low-power homogeneous width, as expected.

Trace 5(f) shows the detected signal from a laser wavelength so far away from the pentacene site origins that no molecules are expected to lie in the laser scan range; this is the background shot and avalanche noise. In samples of undoped pure *p*-terphenyl, only a baseline noise level similar to the off-line data in Fig. 5(f) was observed, even near the center of the inhomogeneous line. Trace 5(g) shows spectra of the strong SFS observed near the center of the inhomogeneous line using a smaller number of averages. This spectrum is composed of a superposition of many "W" profiles like Figure 5(d) with many different center frequencies, illustrating the qualitative difference between spectra of large numbers of molecules (Fig. 5(g)) and spectra of one molecule (Fig. 5(d)).

Using the related FM/US technique, when the modulating frequency  $v_m$  is varied, the single-molecule lineshapes can be observed to expand and contract as required to maintain the proper spacing between the inner edges of the "W". Such clear variations in the recorded spectrum cannot be observed when many molecules are present in the laser scan. This, in conjunction with the shape of the observed features, the position relative to the pentacene in p-terphenyl origins, the lack of such signals in undoped samples, and the appearance of single-molecule spectra with both the FM/Stark and FM/US techniques, leads us to the conclusion that the recorded spectra are due to single molecules of pentacene.

One experimental shortcoming of zero-background techniques is the difficulty in absolute calibration of the observed signals. We attempted to do this as carefully as possible by using a FM signal of known amplitude, but the amount by which the absorption fines were shifted by the secondary modulation could only be estimated. In spite of these limitations, the size of the single-molecule signals appears to be somewhat larger than one would expect given our level of power broadening. This intriguing observation (which needs to be confirmed in future experiments) suggests that

pentacene molecules in the highly strained, improbable sites far out in the wings of the inhomogeneous line may have reduced intersystem crossing rates.

The attainment of single-molecule detection and spectroscopy in solids opens up a new frontier of single-absorber experiments in which the measured properties of the absorbing center are not averaged over many "equivalent" absorbers. Here the absorbing entity is exquisitely sensitive to the symmetry and perturbations introduced by the local environment such as the local vibrational modes and the true local fields. While as an analytical technique the method presented here is not applicable to all molecular impurities, it can be applied to a large number of absorbing ions and molecules in solids with zero-phonon transitions. The detectability of the resulting single-center signal, which depends ultimately upon the absorption strength and upon quantum noise limits, must be evaluated in each case. For situations in which the molecular linewidth is large, recent important advances in two-tone FM spectroscopy <sup>17, 18</sup> make FMS practical with very large sideband spacings.

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**Figure 1.** Pentacene molecules may substitute for any one of the four inequivalent p-terphenyl molecules in the low temperature p-terphenyl unit cell. (See Baudour, et al., Acta Cryst. (1976) B32, 150 for details of the low-temperature crystal structure.)

Figure 2. Schematic showing the source of SFS on inhomogeneous lines and the principle of single-molecule detection in solids. The lower part of the figure shows how the number of impurity molecules in resonance in the probed volume can be varied by changing the laser wavelength. The laser linewidth ( $\simeq 3$  MHz) is negligible.

**Figure 3.** SFS structure versus laser spot position and laser frequency near the inhomogeneous line center for pentacene in p-terphenyl. A sequence of 100 spectra were obtained, moving the  $20\mu m$  laser spot by  $2\mu m$  after each spectrum, and the results plotted as a color encoding of the SFS signal to show the SFS "landscape".

Figure 4. Schematic showing the principle of FM spectroscopy with Stark secondary modulation. The upper part of the figure shows the dye laser (DL) spectrum before the electro-optic phase modulator (EO), after the EO, and after the sample in the cryostat C. Legend: rf - rf oscillator at  $\omega_m$ , APD - avalanche photodiode detector, M - double-balanced mixer, HV - high voltage source, LIA - lock-in amplifier, DS - digital storage and averaging oscilloscope.

Figure 5. Single-molecule spectra using FM/Stark technique (quadratic Stark effect) (a) Simulation of absorption line. (b) Simulation of FM spectrum for (a),  $v_{\rm m}=75$  MHz. (c) Simulation of FM/Stark double-modulation lineshape. (d) SMD spectra at 592.423 nm, 512 averages, 8 traces overlaid, bar shows value of  $2v_{\rm m}=150$  MHz. (O<sub>1</sub> line center is at 592.326 nm.) (e) Average of traces in (d) with fit to the in-focus molecule (smooth curve).

(f) Signal very far off line at 597.514 nm, same conditions. (g) Traces of SFS at the  $O_2$  line center, 592.186 nm, 128 averages each.

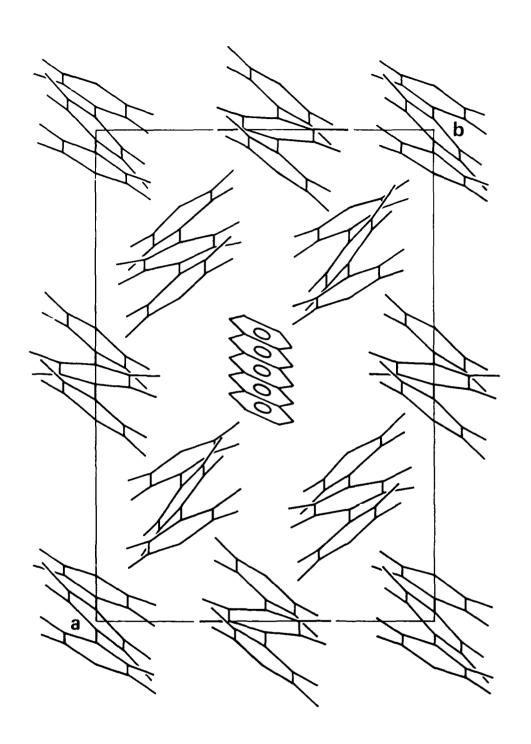
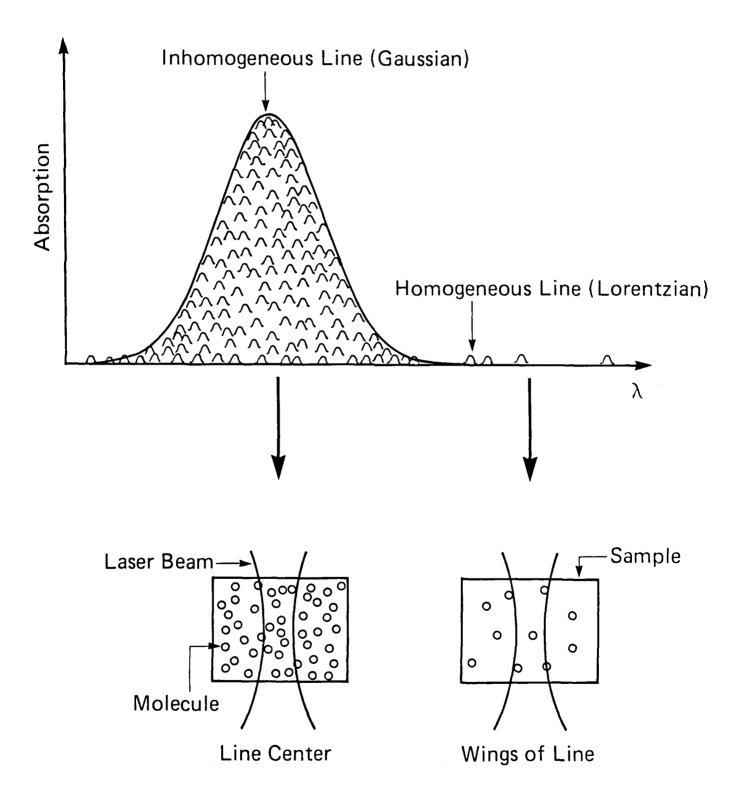


Figure 1



Figure

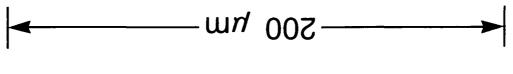




Figure 3

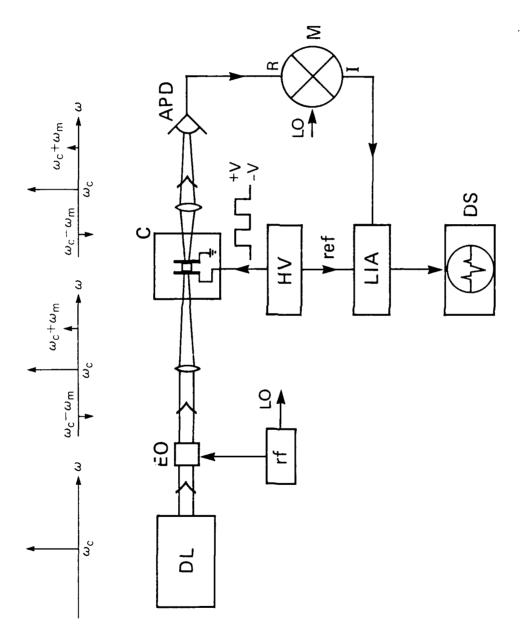


Figure 4

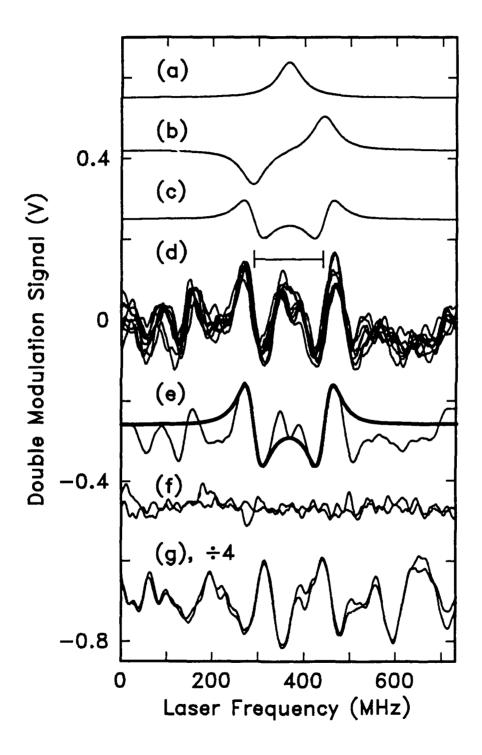


Figure 5

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